

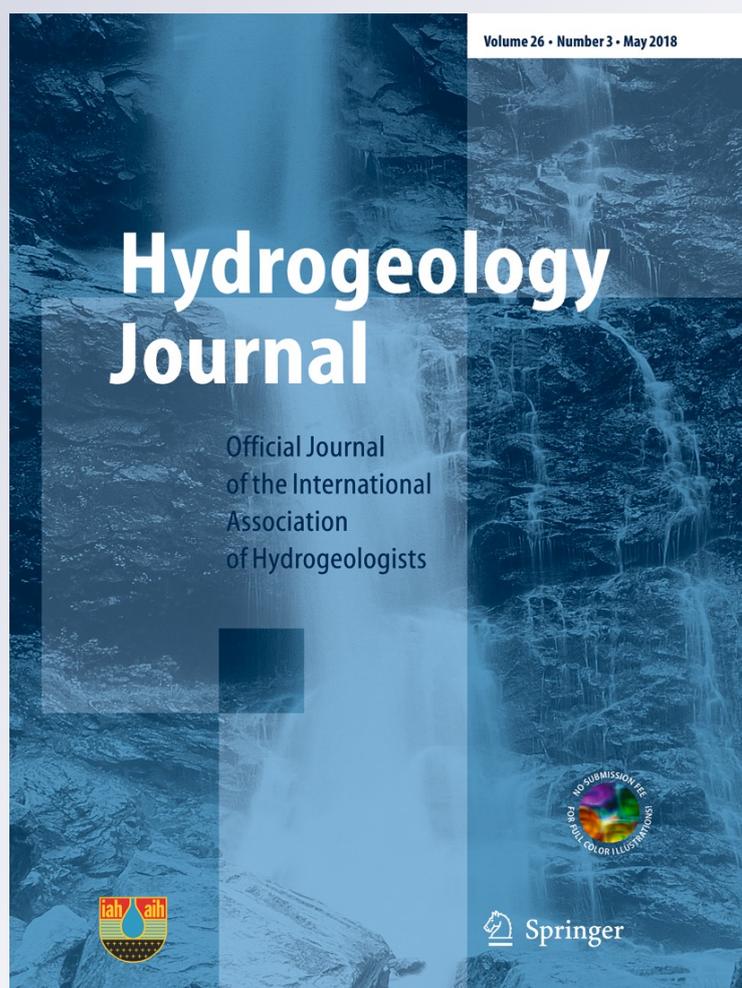
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Nonlinear consolidation in randomly heterogeneous highly compressible aquitards

Berenice Zapata-Norberto¹ · Eric Morales-Casique² · Graciela S. Herrera³

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Abstract

Severe land subsidence due to groundwater extraction may occur in multiaquifer systems where highly compressible aquitards are present. The highly compressible nature of the aquitards leads to nonlinear consolidation where the groundwater flow parameters are stress-dependent. The case is further complicated by the heterogeneity of the hydrogeologic and geotechnical properties of the aquitards. The effect of realistic vertical heterogeneity of hydrogeologic and geotechnical parameters on the consolidation of highly compressible aquitards is investigated by means of one-dimensional Monte Carlo numerical simulations where the lower boundary represents the effect of an instant drop in hydraulic head due to groundwater pumping. Two thousand realizations are generated for each of the following parameters: hydraulic conductivity (K), compression index (C_c), void ratio (e) and m (an empirical parameter relating hydraulic conductivity and void ratio). The correlation structure, the mean and the variance for each parameter were obtained from a literature review about field studies in the lacustrine sediments of Mexico City. The results indicate that among the parameters considered, random K has the largest effect on the ensemble average behavior of the system when compared to a nonlinear consolidation model with deterministic initial parameters. The deterministic solution underestimates the ensemble average of total settlement when initial K is random. In addition, random K leads to the largest variance (and therefore largest uncertainty) of total settlement, groundwater flux and time to reach steady-state conditions.

Keywords Nonlinear consolidation · Groundwater flow · Heterogeneity · Monte Carlo · Stochastic modeling

Introduction

Land subsidence refers to both gentle downward displacement and the sudden sinking of parts of the ground surface. It can be due to natural processes (such as mineral dissolution), human activities or a combination of both; however, perhaps the best known cause of subsidence is the extraction of fluids such as water, crude oil and natural gas. The extraction of groundwater can generate land subsidence by causing the compaction of susceptible aquifer systems (Galloway and Burbey 2011).

This problem is particularly found in systems with the presence of aquitards (Meade 1967; Poland and Davis 1969; Galloway and Burbey 2011). Theories have been developed to describe and simulate consolidation in multi-layer aquifer systems (Verruijt 1969; Herrera and Figueroa 1969; Herrera 1970; Witherspoon and Freeze 1972; Helm 1972, 1975, 1976; Herrera and Rodarte 1973; Gambolati and Freeze 1973; Herrera and Yates 1977; Narasimhan and Witherspoon 1977; Sandhu 1979; Neuman et al. 1982; Cruickshank-Villanueva 1984; Rivera et al. 1991; Hsieh 1996; Burbey and Helm 1999; Burbey 2005). Several of these theories assume a quasi-three-dimensional (3-D) representation of the system where the aquifers are modeled as two-dimensional (2-D) or 3-D, while the aquitards are modeled as one-dimensional (1-D). This representation is usually adequate when the contrast in hydraulic conductivity between the aquitard and the aquifers is larger than two orders of magnitude causing groundwater flow in the aquitard to be mostly vertical (Neuman and Witherspoon 1969).

A challenge arises when the sediments comprising the aquitard units are extremely compressible, such as in the case of

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Mexico City (Marsal and Mazari 1959; Rudolph and Frind 1991; Ortega-Guerrero et al. 1999). Subsidence rates in the Basin of Mexico have exceeded 400 mm/year and more than 13.5 m of subsidence has accrued (Ortega-Guerrero et al. 1999; Auvinet 2009). Rates of nearly 350 mm/year have been measured recently (Cabral-Cano et al. 2008). Subsidence in this case is the result of large pumping rates and the highly compressible nature of the clayey materials, which are described as allophanes (Carreón-Freyre et al. 2010; Jaime-P and Méndez-Sánchez 2010). The poromechanical and physical properties of the media such as porosity, storativity (S_s) and hydraulic conductivity (K), are reduced during consolidation leading to a nonlinear groundwater flow equation. Helm (1976) developed a theory to model 1-D flow and consolidation accounting for stress-dependent K and S_s . Neuman et al. (1982) developed a quasi-3-D mathematical and numerical model that accounts for stress-dependent parameters in the aquitard. Rivera et al. (1991) developed a regional quasi-3-D model of the hydrogeologic system in Mexico City accounting for stress-dependent parameters in the aquitard; they divided the aquitard in layers with different properties. Rudolph and Frind (1991) developed a 1-D nonlinear groundwater flow and consolidation algorithm to simulate the behavior of highly compressible aquitards. The properties for their simulation cases where those typically observed in the compressible clay aquitard in Mexico City. Their results show that as hydraulic diffusivity (K/S_s) is reduced due to consolidation groundwater flow is also reduced leading to longer transient behavior and to less total land settlement than what is predicted by a lineal (stress-independent parameter) model. The algorithm of Rudolph and Frind (1991) was later applied to model subsidence in the Chalco region, in the metropolitan area of Mexico City (Ortega-Guerrero et al. 1999; Ortíz-Zamora and Ortega-Guerrero 2010).

The nonlinear models applied to Mexico City's aquitard employed either a constant distribution or smoothly variable distribution of initial parameters (Rudolph and Frind 1991; Ortega-Guerrero et al. 1999; Ortíz-Zamora and Ortega-Guerrero 2010), or a constant initial distribution by layers (Rivera et al. 1991); however, field data suggest that parameters, particularly porosity and K , are highly variable even in the vertical direction (Marsal and Mazari 1975; Vargas and Ortega-Guerrero 2004; Juárez-Camarena 2015). Figure 1a depicts the saturated gravimetric water content w in a geotechnical bore in the lacustrine aquitard in Mexico City; variations in w lead to void ratio ranging from 1 to 10. Vargas and Ortega-Guerrero (2004) conducted permeability tests in nests of piezometers in the aquitard of Mexico City and found that K is highly variable (Fig. 1b). Adequate representation of realistic parameter heterogeneity is recently being incorporated in groundwater flow and consolidation models. Frias et al. (2004) investigated the effect of random K in highly heterogeneous poroelastic reservoirs. Ferronato et al. (2006) employed Monte Carlo simulation to model regional land subsidence considering the vertical uniaxial rock compressibility as random. Stochastic poroelastic models are being developed (Wang and

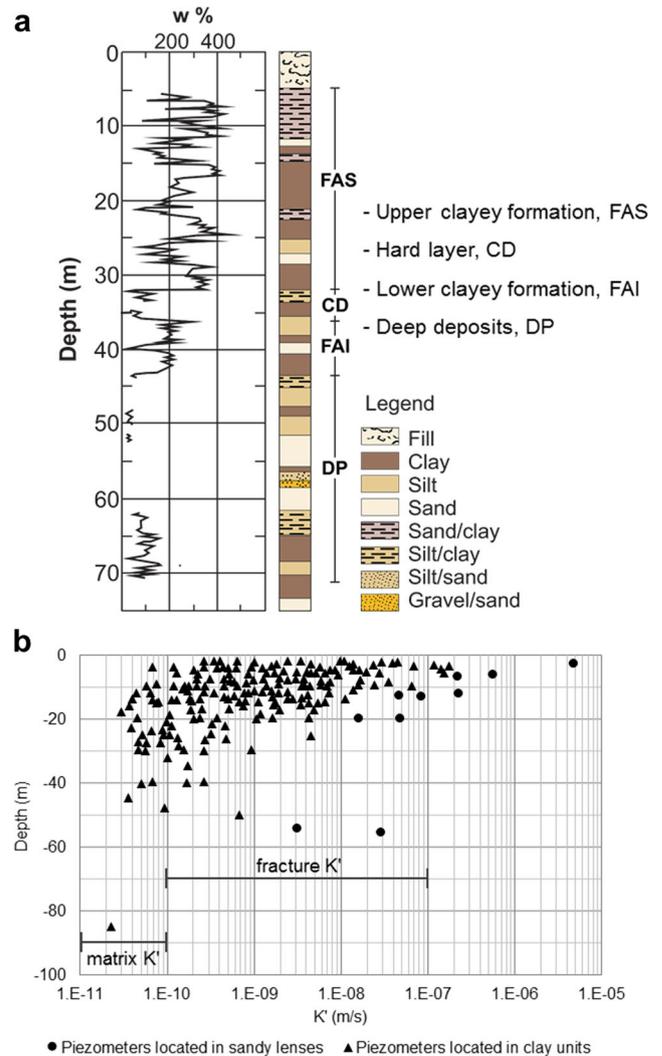


Fig. 1 a Gravimetric water content w at saturation in bore Pc 28 in Mexico City (Marsal and Mazari 1975), b hydraulic conductivity measured in several boreholes in the aquitard of Mexico City (Vargas and Ortega-Guerrero 2004)

Hsu 2009, 2013); however, realistic parameter heterogeneity in highly compressible aquitards is yet to be included in groundwater flow and consolidation models.

In this paper, the effect of realistic vertical parameter heterogeneity in a nonlinear 1-D model of groundwater flow and consolidation is explored by means of Monte Carlo simulation. Since the focus is on the nonlinear consolidation of highly compressible aquitards, and for computational efficiency, the upper and lower aquifers are represented by known head (Dirichlet) boundaries. This is equivalent to assuming that flow from and to the aquitard does not alter the head of the upper and lower aquifers. The lower boundary is set to represent an instant drop in hydraulic head due to groundwater pumping. Realistic realizations of heterogeneous vertical distribution of parameters are generated based on a literature review in the highly compressible aquitard of Mexico City.

The numerical tests consider one random parameter at a time and leave the case where parameters are correlated for future research efforts. By employing a stochastic simulation framework, it is possible to identify which parameter or parameters lead to the largest effect on predicting land subsidence and the largest uncertainty associated to that prediction in these highly compressible systems. In the next section, the nonlinear groundwater flow and consolidation model, the literature review on vertical variability of parameters, the tests cases and the generation of random realizations are described. Next, the results of the numerical experiments are discussed as well as the effect on computed total settlement, groundwater fluxes and time to approximate steady state. Finally, the implications for more realistic simulation of land subsidence are discussed.

Materials and methods

Nonlinear subsidence algorithm

To model 1-D groundwater flow and nonlinear subsidence, the algorithm of Neuman et al. (1982), modified by Rudolph and Frind (1991), was employed. In a hydrogeological aquifer-aquitard-aquifer system, the focus is only on the consolidation of the aquitard, and for simplicity the system is decoupled and the effect of the aquifers is modeled as Dirichlet boundary conditions. Hence, the 1-D flow equation in the aquitard is given by:

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial z} \left[K(e) \frac{\partial h}{\partial z} \right] = S_s(e, \sigma_e) \frac{\partial h}{\partial t} \tag{1}$$

subject to

$$h(z, 0) = h_0 \tag{2}$$

$$h(0, t) = h_1(t) \tag{3}$$

$$h(b, t) = h_2(t) \tag{4}$$

where h is hydraulic head (m), K is hydraulic conductivity (m/s), S_s is specific storage (1/m), b is the aquitard thickness (m) and $h_1(t)$ and $h_2(t)$ are hydraulic head in the lower and upper aquifers, respectively. The lateral extension of the aquitard is considered large enough for the 1-D representation to be valid.

Notation in Eq. (1) highlights that parameters K and S_s are functions of void ratio e and effective stress σ_e . In addition, a heterogeneous aquitard is considered and thus K and S_s are also functions of the spatial coordinate z . The algorithm adopts Terzaghi's 1-D consolidation theory (Terzaghi 1925). Assuming the total stress is constant and neglecting changes

in z during the consolidation process leads to the following relation

$$\gamma \Delta h = -\Delta \sigma_e \tag{5}$$

where γ is specific weight of water (kg/m^3). Changes in σ_e will lead to changes in e . The relationship between an incremental change in the effective stress $d\sigma_e$ and the resulting change in the void ratio $de(\sigma_e)$ in the highly compressible stress range is expressed as (Rudolph and Frind 1991)

$$de(\sigma_e) = C_c \log \left(\frac{\sigma_{e_0} + d\sigma_e}{\sigma_{e_0}} \right) \tag{6}$$

where C_c is compression index (the negative slope of the e versus $\log \sigma_e$ curve) and σ_{e_0} is the initial effective stress (kN/m^2 ; Fig. 2).

The algorithm employs an empirical expression to relate hydraulic conductivity $dK(e)$ to changes in void ratio de (Rudolph and Frind 1991)

$$dK(e) = K_0(e) \left(10^{de/m} - 1 \right) \tag{7}$$

where $K_0(e)$ is hydraulic conductivity at the start of the loading increment and m is the slope of an empirical linear relation between e and $\log K$ (Lambe and Whitman 1969; Fig. 3).

Specific storage as a function of effective stress and void ratio is computed by

$$S_s(e, \sigma_e) = \frac{\rho g C_c \log \left(\frac{\sigma_{e_0} + d\sigma_e}{\sigma_{e_0}} \right)}{d\sigma_e (1.0 + e_0)} \tag{8}$$

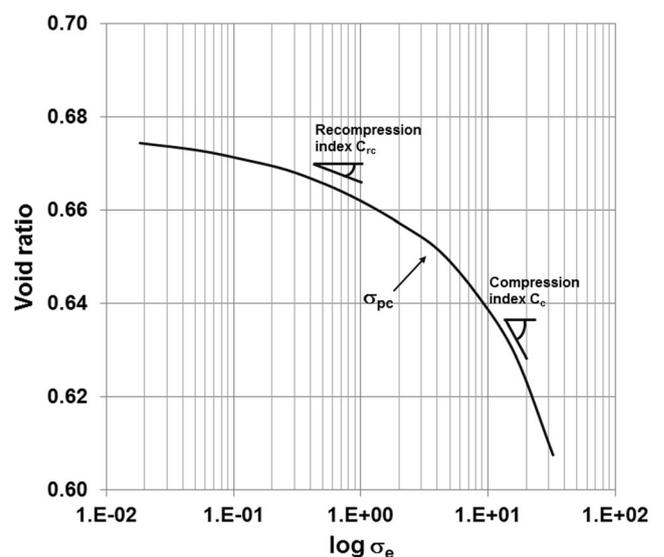


Fig. 2 Typical relation between effective stress and void ratio (Rudolph and Frind 1991)

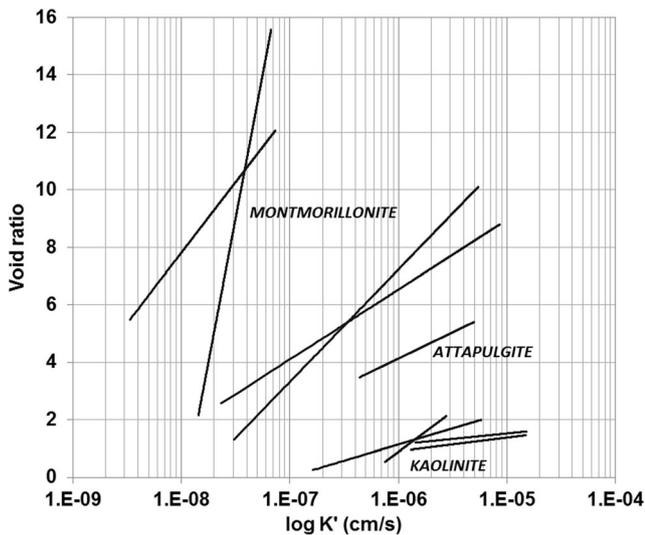


Fig. 3 Relation between log K and e (Lambe and Whitman 1969)

where ρ is water density (kg/m^3) and g is the gravity constant (m/s^2). Finally, deformation is computed by

$$dL_e = L_e \left(\frac{de}{1 + e_0} \right) \quad (9)$$

where dL_e is the differential length change (m) and L_e is length of an element in a numerical mesh (m).

Test case: random heterogeneity

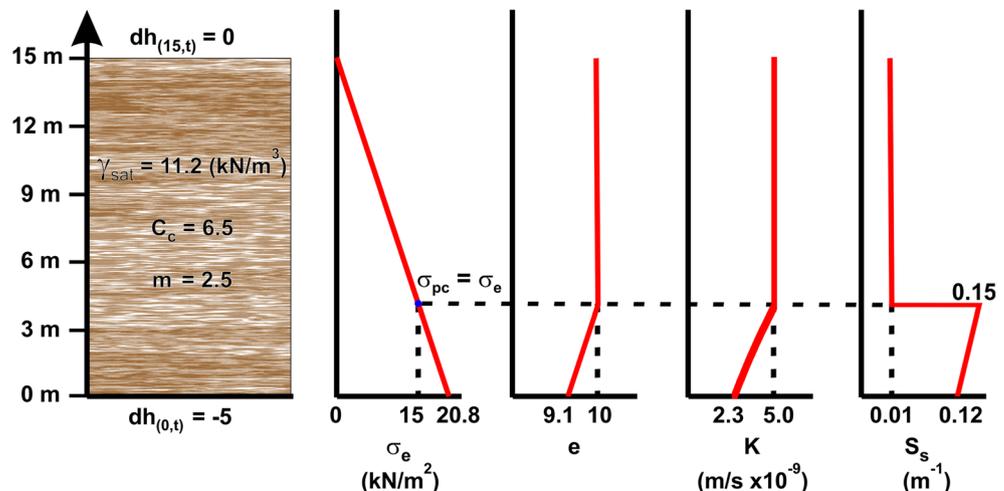
The effect of vertical heterogeneity on nonlinear subsidence is investigated in a synthetic hydrogeologic setting similar to the one employed by Rudolph and Frind (1991). The aquitard is 15 m thick and initial effective stress increases linearly with depth; preconsolidation stress is set to 15 kN/m^2 . The aquitard is stressed by instantaneously lowering the pore pressure along the bottom boundary, simulating the effect of pumping in the lower aquifer. The geometry of the test case along with

boundary conditions and initial distributions of σ_e , e , K and S_s are shown in Fig. 4. The initial distributions of σ_e , e , K and S_s were selected as in the generic case in Rudolph and Frind (1991), except that in the present case these spatial distributions represent ensemble means from which random realizations are generated.

The statistical data to design the numerical study were obtained from a literature review about the spatial variability of the parameters involved in the previous algorithm (namely K , e , C_c and m) in the highly compressible lacustrine aquitard in the Basin of Mexico (Fig. 5). The aquitard consists of lacustrine Quaternary sediments composed by montmorillonite, illite, kaolinite, halloysite and smectite, interbedded with volcanic material (Marsal and Mazari 1959; Peralta y Fabi 1989; Warren and Rudolph 1997; Díaz-Rodríguez et al. 1998) with a maximum thickness of about 300 m in the Chalco plain (Ortega-Guerrero et al. 1999).

With respect to K , Vargas and Ortega-Guerrero (2004) conducted 225 permeability tests at depths of 2–85 m in the previously mentioned aquitard. They found that K values range from 1×10^{-11} and 1×10^{-7} m/s and that log-Gaussian regression models can be fitted to the data. With respect to void ratio e , drillings for geotechnical investigations in the Mexico City aquitard have revealed a range of values from 2 to 12 (Marsal and Mazari 1959) and up to 15 (Juárez-Badillo and Rico-Rodríguez 2012). Values of compression index C_c depend on the type of clay and they have been found to be vertically variable in drillings for geotechnical investigations. Hernández-Marín et al. (2005) and Carreón-Freyre et al. (2006) report values of C_c ranging from 0.4 to 3.5. Carreón-Freyre et al. (2015) report values of C_c ranging from 0.1 to 3.5 in the western part of Mexico City. In a geotechnical study for the Metropolitan Cathedral in Mexico City, Covarrubias-Fernández (1994) found C_c values from 1.4 to 12.1. Finally, the slope m relating e and $\log K$ typically ranges from 0.02 to 10 (Lambe and Whitman 1969) for a variety of materials. For the aquitard in Mexico City, Covarrubias-Fernández (1994) found values of m ranging from 0.6 to 4; however, the aforementioned

Fig. 4 Test case (adapted from Rudolph and Frind 1991)



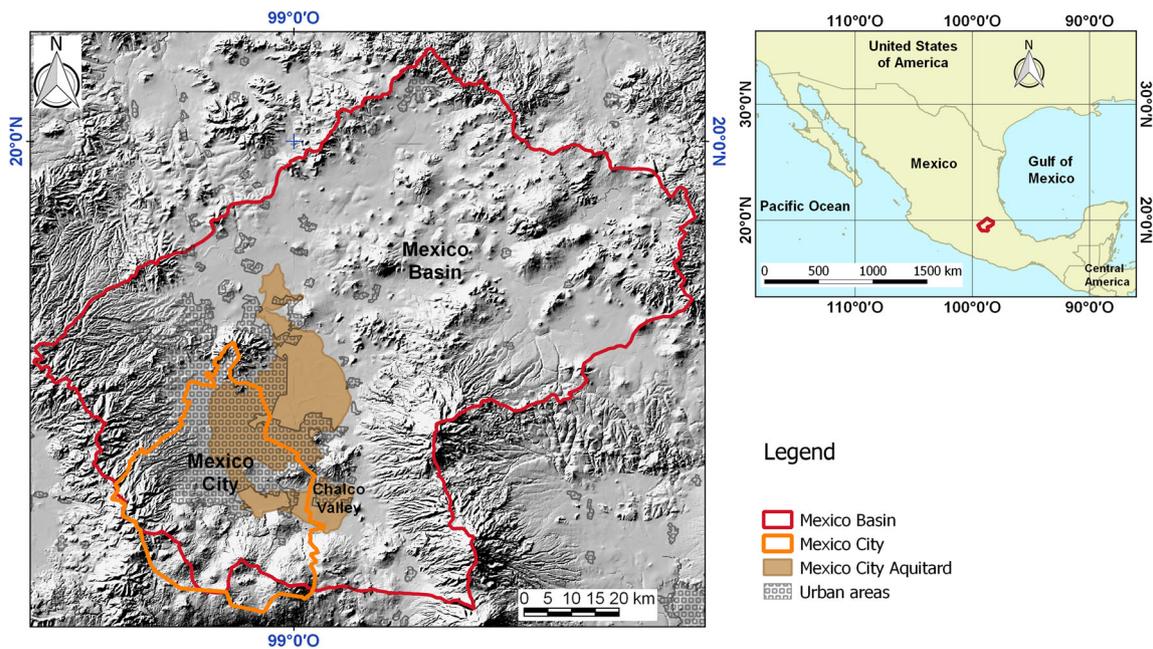


Fig. 5 Location of the Basin of Mexico (red line), Mexico City limits (orange line), urban area (gray-patterned polygon) and highly compressible lacustrine sediments (brown polygon)

studies did not conduct geostatistical analyses of the data. The only geostatistical analysis in the highly compressible sediments of the lacustrine aquitard of Mexico City was conducted by Juárez-Camarena (2015) who conducted a geostatistical analysis of gravimetric water content w with data from geotechnical boreholes, after which he modeled w with an exponential correlation with a vertical integral scale of 2.1 m.

Table 1 summarizes the statistical data selected for each parameter. With this statistical data 2,000 realizations were generated employing sequential Gaussian simulation implemented in the package RandomFields (Schlather et al. 2016) implemented in R (R Core Team 2015). For simplicity, the focus is on one random parameter at a time keeping the rest deterministic (future work should study the effect of cross-correlation between parameters); thus, each parameter was simulated independently with zero mean and exponential covariance, where variance and

integral scale are given in Table 1. In absence of geostatistical analyses that provide typical values of integral scales for each parameter in highly compressible aquitards, the integral scale is set to 2.1 (the value reported by Juárez-Camarena 2015). The resulting zero-mean realizations for each parameter were then scaled to fit the distribution in Fig. 4, representing a spatially variable mean. After the first set of numerical experiments, $\ln K$ was selected as the parameter with the largest effect on total settlement, and the effect of different variance and integral scale values for $\ln K$ was further investigated in an additional set of simulations.

Numerical solution

The 1-D groundwater flow and nonlinear consolidation algorithm is solved by implicit finite differences in a

Table 1 Statistical data selected for test case

Parameter	Correlation structure	Variance	Integral scale (m)	Reference
$\ln K$	Exponential	4.01	2.1	Vargas and Ortega-Guerrero (2004); Juárez-Camarena (2015)
C_c	Exponential	5.37	2.1	Covarrubias-Fernández (1994); Juárez-Camarena (2015)
m	Exponential	0.88	2.1	Covarrubias-Fernández (1994); Juárez-Camarena (2015)
e	Exponential	3.22	2.1	Marsal and Mazari (1959); Covarrubias-Fernández (1994); Juárez-Camarena (2015)

Ensemble mean for each parameter is depicted in Fig. 4

deforming mesh (Eq. 9). The numerical scheme leads to a tridiagonal matrix and the algebraic equation is solved by the Thomas algorithm. The numerical mesh consists of 118 elements initially with $\Delta z = 0.127$ m. Total simulation time was selected as 275 years and was enough for most realizations to approximate steady state; however, many realizations of K required longer time to approximate steady state. Hence, all simulations for random K were also run for 1,000 years for adequate computation of ensemble moments. To deal with the nonlinearity in the parameters a predictor-corrector algorithm is implemented and the time step in all simulations is restricted to approximately 1 day to limit large changes in the parameters.

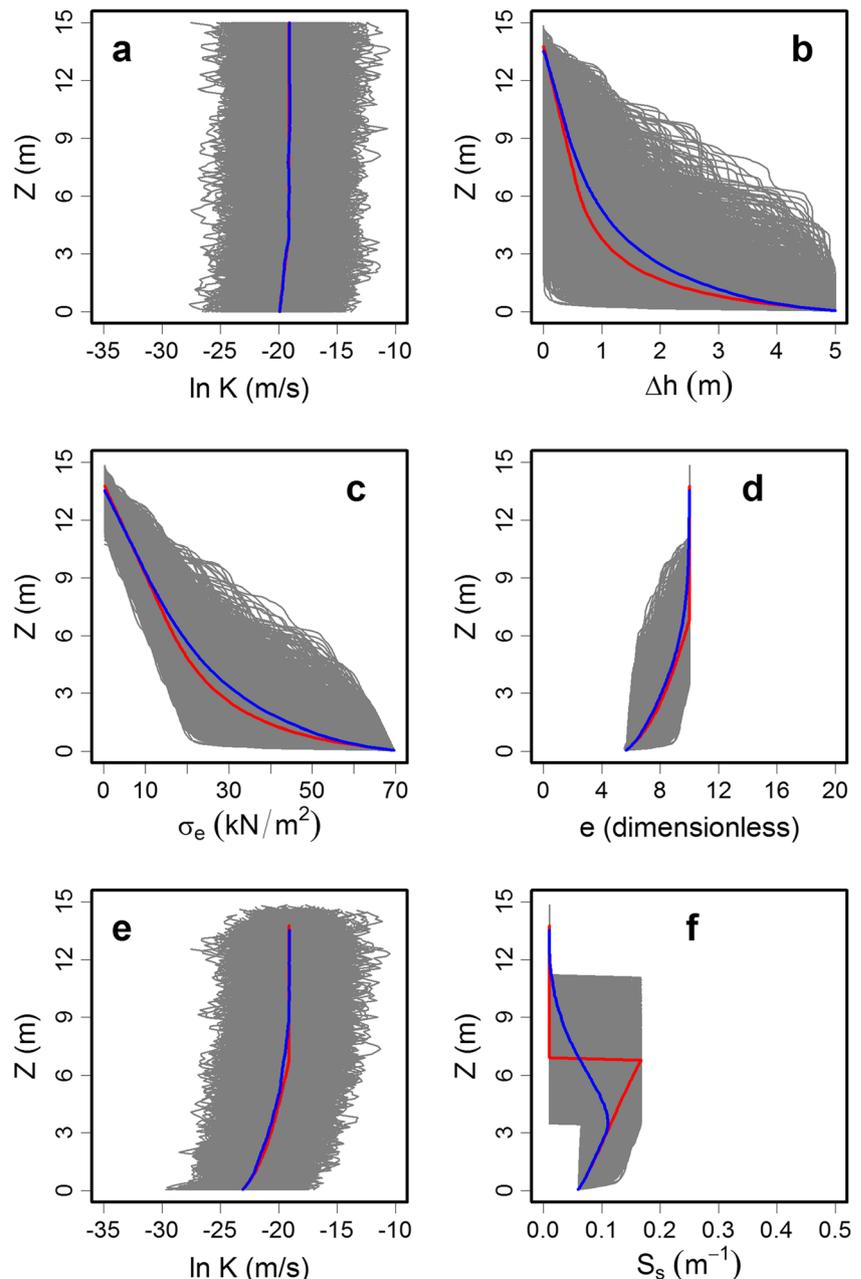
Results

In this section, the Monte Carlo simulation results for the cases with one random parameter will be presented first. Then the results of total settlement (subsidence) will be discussed. Finally, the flow through the aquitard and the time to reach steady state will be presented and discussed.

Random K

Figure 6a depicts 2,000 realizations of K (gray lines) with the ensemble average depicted by the blue line, which is the same as the distribution of K for the deterministic

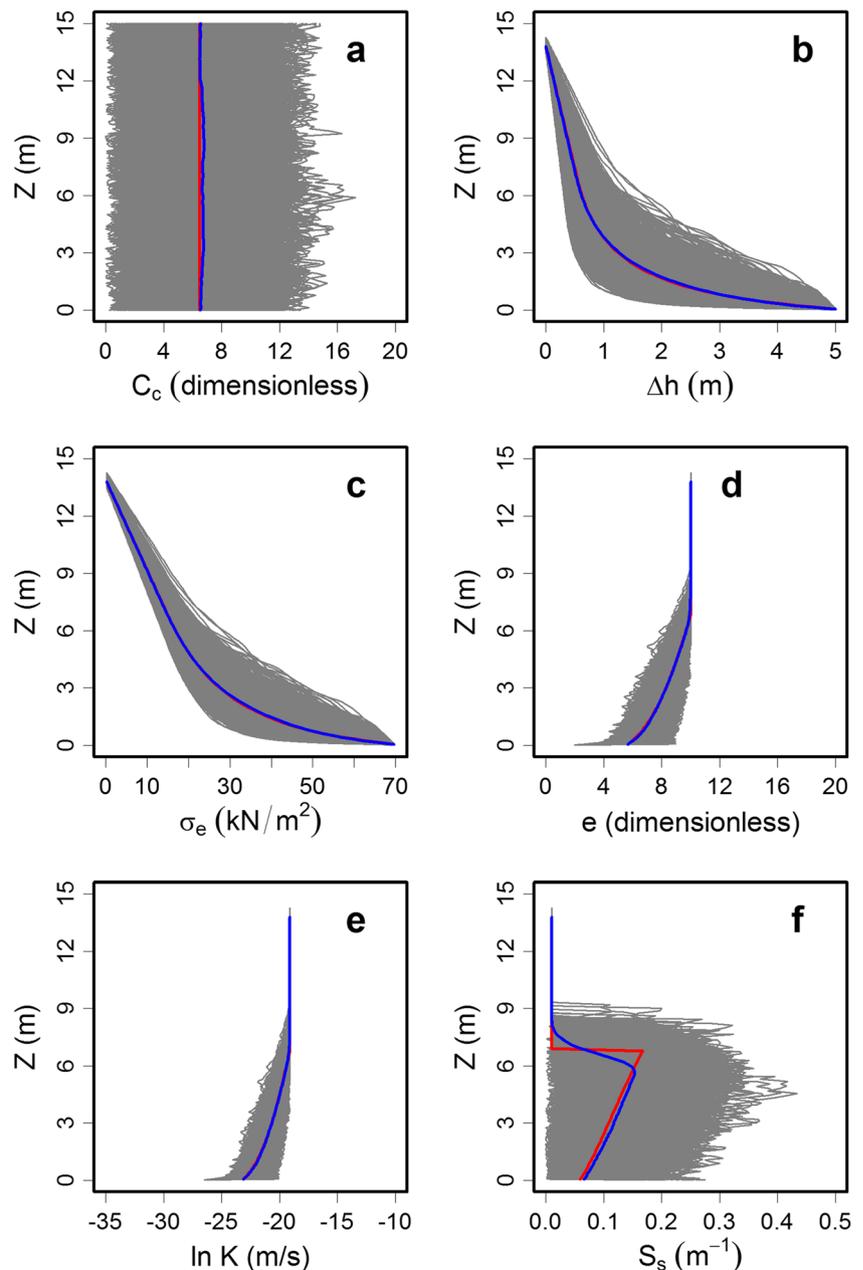
Fig. 6 Monte Carlo simulation results (gray lines) of groundwater flow and nonlinear consolidation considering K as a random field. The blue line is the ensemble average and the red line is the deterministic reference case. **a** Initial 2,000 realizations of K ; **b–f** results at $t = 1,000$ years



reference case (Fig. 4). Also depicted are the simulation results at $t = 275$ years for change in hydraulic head (Fig. 6b), effective stress (Fig. 6c), void ratio e (Fig. 6d), K (Fig. 6e) and S_s (Fig. 6f). In each figure the ensemble average is depicted by a blue line, while the solution for the deterministic case is depicted by a red line. Figure 6 shows that the resulting ensemble averages differ from the deterministic reference case solution, except for K where both deterministic solution and ensemble average are similar. The deterministic case predicts smaller changes in Δh (hence underestimating changes in pore pressure) than the ensemble average, leading to similar behavior in

effective stress. In turn, this leads to larger reduction in void ratio for the ensemble average than the deterministic case (Fig. 6d). The largest difference between the deterministic results and the ensemble average is seen in specific storage (Fig. 6f), where the latter is smoother. Single realizations of S_s exhibit the same behavior as the deterministic case; however, when averaging, the result exhibits a “smooth” shape that gets smoother as the dispersion in the realizations of S_s increases. In addition, there is significant spreading of the realizations around the ensemble averages. The impact of this spreading on the computed variance of total subsidence will be discussed latter.

Fig. 7 Monte Carlo simulation results (gray lines) of groundwater flow and nonlinear consolidation considering C_c as a random field. The blue line is the ensemble average and the red line is the deterministic reference case. **a** Initial 2,000 realizations of C_c ; **b–f** results at $t = 275$ years



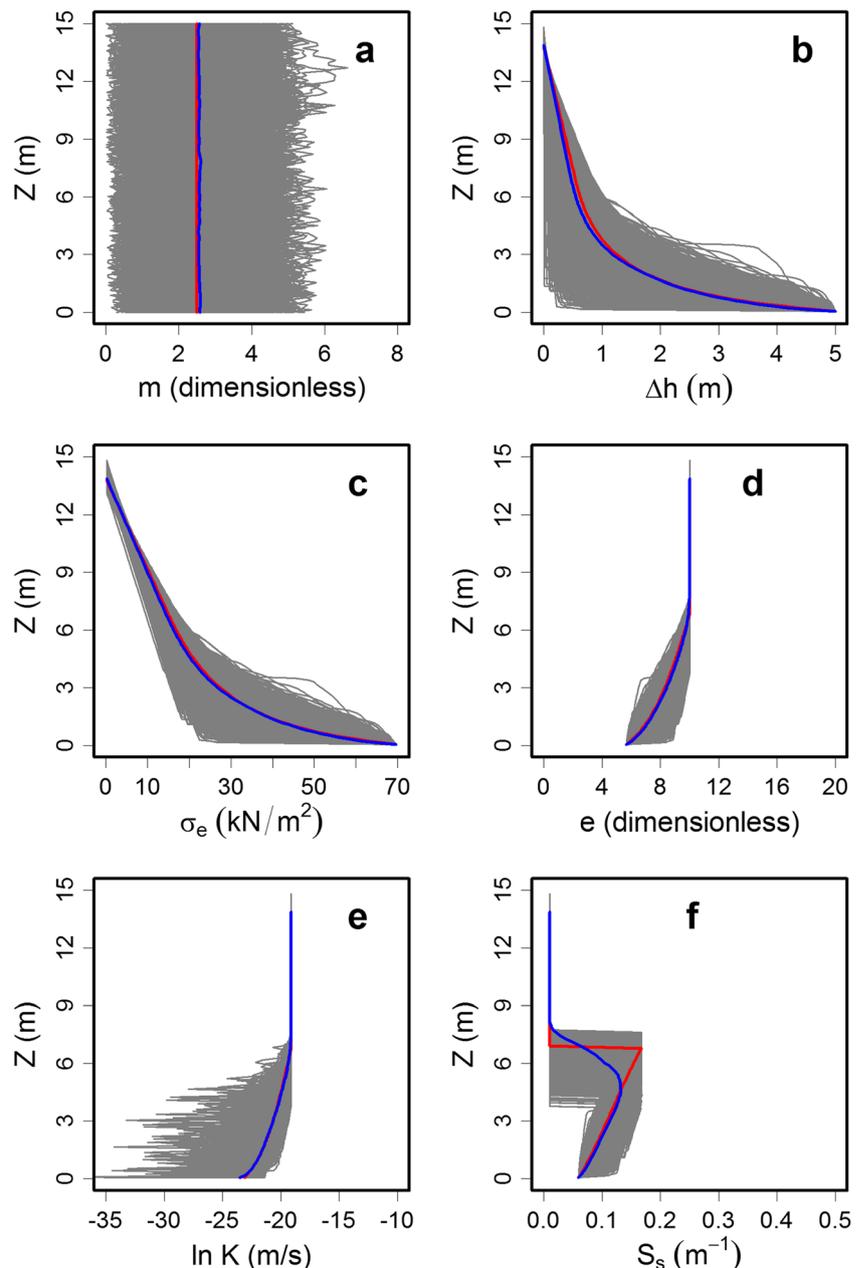
Random C_c

The case of compression index C_c as a random variable is depicted in Fig. 7 where the results correspond to $t = 275$ years. The reference deterministic case assumes constant C_c (Fig. 4); thus, the ensemble average of the 2,000 realizations is constant (Fig. 7a). Contrasting with the previous case with random K , the case with random C_c leads to very similar results for the ensemble average (blue line) and the deterministic case (red line) for all variables and less spreading of the results for each realization (gray lines).

Random m

The case of m (the slope relating the empirical plot of $\log K$ and void ratio) as a random variable is depicted in Fig. 8 where the results correspond to $t = 275$ years. In this case, the ensemble average results are similar to the deterministic reference case, although the ensemble average of the drawdown is smaller than the drawdown in the deterministic case for z between 3–9 m (Fig. 8b). This leads to smaller ensemble averaged effective stress (Fig. 8c) and to larger ensemble average of void ratio (Fig. 8c), that is, smaller changes in void ratio with respect to the initial distribution. These differences

Fig. 8 Monte Carlo simulation results (gray lines) of groundwater flow and nonlinear consolidation considering m as a random field. The blue line is the ensemble average and the red line is the deterministic reference case. **a** Initial 2,000 realizations of m ; **b–f** results at $t = 275$ years



between the ensemble average and the deterministic reference case are however smaller than those observed in the case of random K (Fig. 6). In addition, this case also leads to less spreading in the results for the 2,000 realizations than what is observed in the case of random K .

Random e

The final case considering void ratio e as a random variable is depicted in Fig. 9 for a total simulation time $t = 275$. In this case, the ensemble averages are very similar to the results of the deterministic reference case. In addition, this case resulted in minimum spreading of the 2,000 realizations results around the

ensemble average of change in hydraulic head, effective stress and hydraulic conductivity (Fig. 9b,c,e, respectively). The main effect of random e is on the specific storage S_s (Fig. 9f).

Effect of parameter heterogeneity on total settlement

Figure 10 depicts the results for total settlement versus time corresponding to the four cases previously discussed: random K (Fig. 10a), random C_c (Fig. 10b), random m (Fig. 10c) and random e (Fig. 10d). Table 2 contains the ensemble average and variance of total settlement at the end of the simulation period of 275 years. The case of random K produces the largest differences in total settlement between the deterministic

Fig. 9 Monte Carlo simulation results (gray lines) of groundwater flow and nonlinear consolidation considering e as a random field. The blue line is the ensemble average and the red line is the deterministic reference case. **a** Initial 2,000 realizations of e ; **b–f** results at $t = 275$ years

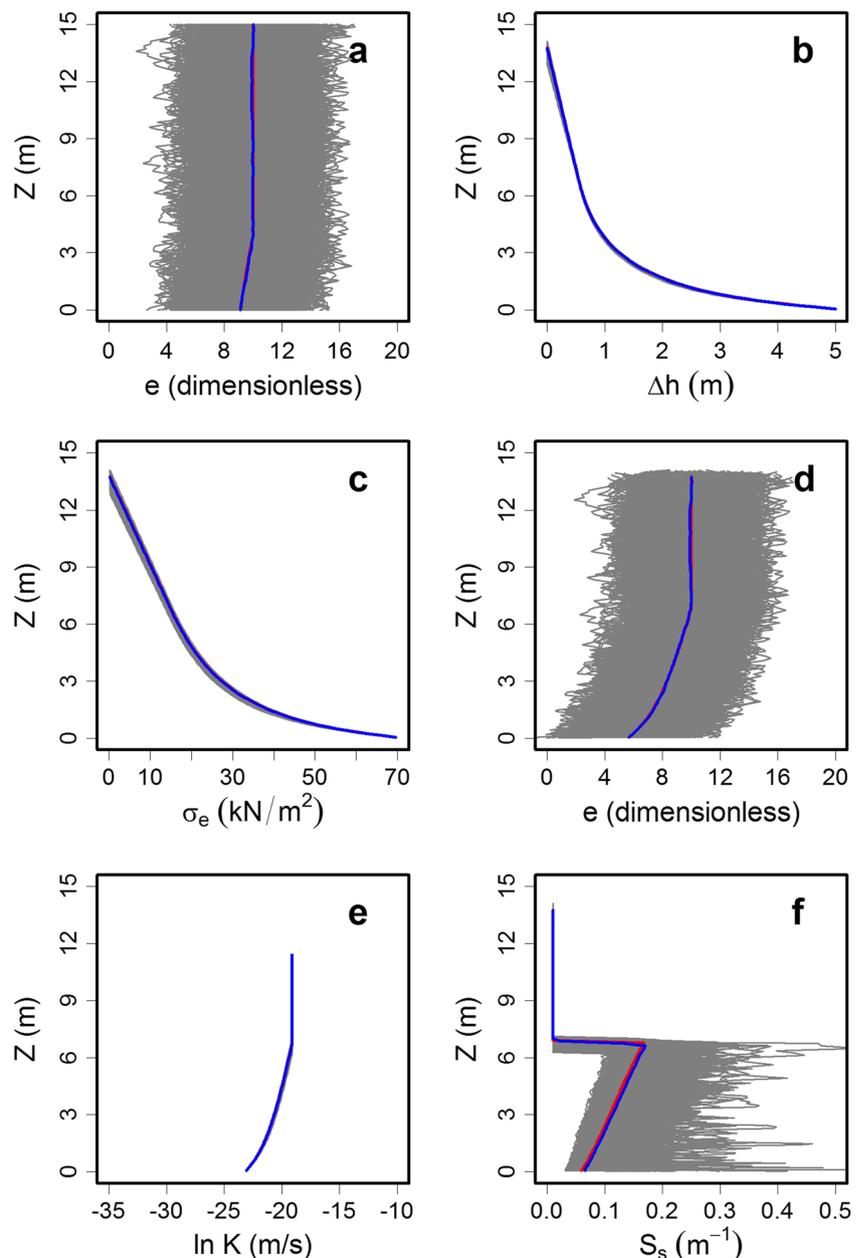
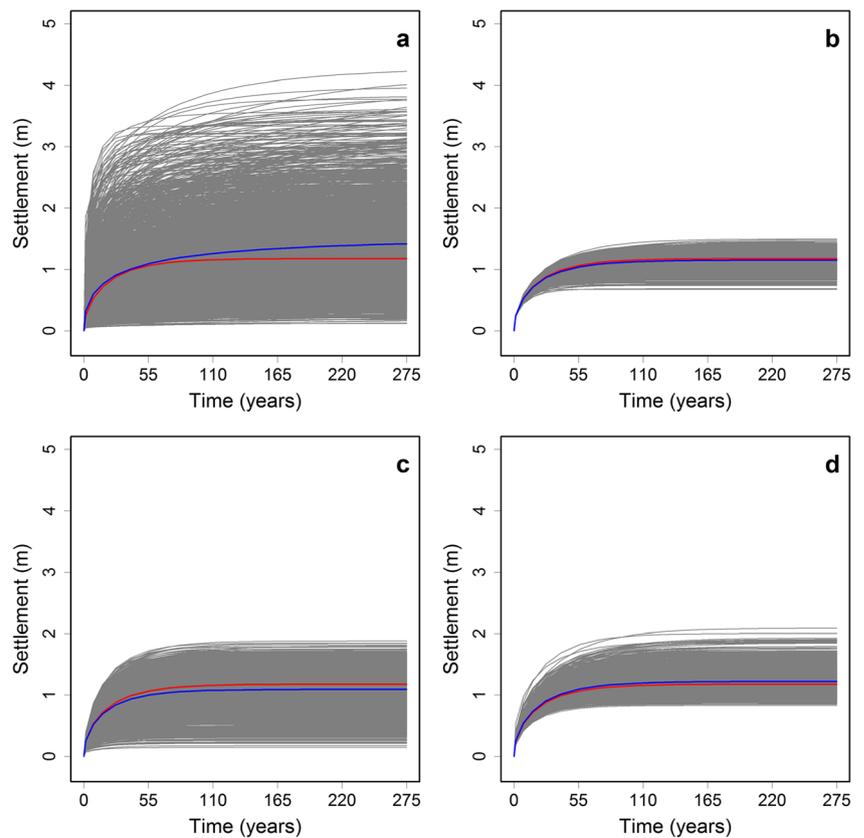


Fig. 10 Total settlement for **a** random K , **b** random C_c , **c** random m and **d** random e . The red line is the deterministic reference case, gray lines correspond to 2,000 Monte Carlo realizations and the blue line is the ensemble average of these realizations



case and the ensemble average; from 55 years on, the ensemble average significantly predicts larger settlement than the deterministic case. At the end of the simulation time, the total settlement for the deterministic case is 1.18 m, while the ensemble average is 1.42 m. Although the deterministic case reaches steady state after 168 years, the ensemble average of total settlement is still increasing after 275 years (Fig. 10a). In addition, random K also produces the largest spreading around the ensemble average of total settlement for individual realizations; some realizations produce total settlement at the end of the simulation time larger than 3 m. Variance of total settlement at $t = 275$ years is 0.51 m^2 , the largest among the four cases considered.

The case with random m is the next parameter with the largest impact on the ensemble average of total settlement and on individual realizations. In this case, the ensemble average of total settlement is smaller than the corresponding prediction for the deterministic case; at $t = 275$ years the ensemble average of total settlement is 1.09 m and the variance is 0.1 m^2 . The cases with random void ratio e and random C_c result in ensemble averages of total settlement of 1.22 and 1.15 m, respectively, which are values close to the 1.18 m of total settlement in the deterministic case. In addition, considering these two parameters as random results in low variance of total settlement at $t = 275$ years variance is 0.03 m^2 for random e and 0.02 m^2 for random C_c . From these results, it

Table 2 Ensemble average and variance of total settlement, boundary flux at 275 years, and time elapsed for the difference between top and bottom boundary fluxes being less than 1%. $\sigma^2 =$ variance

Case	Total settlement		Boundary flux		Time to steady state	
	(m)	σ^2 (m ²)	(mm/d)	σ^2 (mm/d) ²	(years)	σ^2 (years ²)
Deterministic	1.18	–	0.034	–	168.00	–
Random K	1.42	0.51	~0.020	$\sim 1 \times 10^{-3}$	> 275	a
Random C_c	1.15	0.02	0.033	5.80×10^{-5}	169.40	1,503.36
Random m	1.09	0.10	0.029	1.16×10^{-4}	159.80	550.80
Random e	1.22	0.03	0.034	5.36×10^{-7}	170.40	396.03

^a Boundary fluxes in a significant number of realizations still differed in more than 1% at the extended simulation time of 1000 years, thus their variance was not computed

is clear that the spatial variability of K produces the largest impact on total settlement and should be considered in simulating land subsidence. Correlation between random variables and its effect on consolidation will be considered in future work.

Flux at the boundaries

Figure 11 depicts the flux at the upper and lower boundaries versus time for the cases with random K (Fig. 11a), random C_c (Fig. 11b), random m (Fig. 11c) and random e (Fig. 11d). Table 2 contains the ensemble average and variance of boundary flux at the end of the simulation period of 275 years. At early simulation time, the flux at the $z = 0$ boundary reaches its maximum value, while flux at the top boundary is close to zero. As time progresses the flux at the bottom boundary diminishes, while the flux at the top boundary increases, both tending to a constant flux value. The time elapsed for the difference between the fluxes at the top and bottom boundaries to be less than 1% (to approximate steady state) is also presented in Table 2. At $t = 275$ years the flux at the top and bottom boundaries for the deterministic case is 0.034 mm/d; both fluxes are within 1% difference after 168 years. With respect to the case with random K , at $t = 275$ years the ensemble average of fluxes at the top and bottom boundaries are close to 0.02 mm/d but still with a difference larger than 1%

between them; however, by extending the simulation time to 1,000 years, it was possible to verify that boundary fluxes differ in less than 1% after 525 years. In addition, boundary fluxes for each realization show significant spreading with a variance of $1 \times 10^{-3} \text{ mm}^2/\text{d}^2$ at $t = 275$ years.

The case with random m resulted in an ensemble average of fluxes at the top and bottom boundaries of 0.029 mm/d and a flux variance of $1.16 \times 10^{-4} \text{ mm}^2/\text{d}^2$ at $t = 275$ years. The case with random C_c resulted in an ensemble average of fluxes at the top and bottom boundaries of 0.033 mm/d and a flux variance of $5.8 \times 10^{-5} \text{ mm}^2/\text{d}^2$ at $t = 275$ years. Finally, the case with random e resulted in an ensemble average of fluxes at the top and bottom boundaries of 0.034 mm/d and the smallest flux variance among the four cases, $5.36 \times 10^{-7} \text{ mm}^2/\text{d}^2$ at $t = 275$ years. Time for the boundary fluxes to be within 1% difference ranged from 159.8 years for random m to 170.4 for random e (Table 2), while the largest variance was for random C_c and the smallest for random e . These results show that K is the parameter with the largest effect on total settlement and boundary fluxes.

Effect of variance, integral scale and correlation structure of random K on total settlement

In the previous section it was shown that the effect of random hydraulic conductivity has more impact on ensemble average

Fig. 11 Flux at the top and bottom boundaries for **a** random K , **b** random C_c , **c** random m and **d** random e . The red line is the deterministic reference case, gray lines correspond to 2,000 Monte Carlo realizations and the blue line is the ensemble average of these realizations

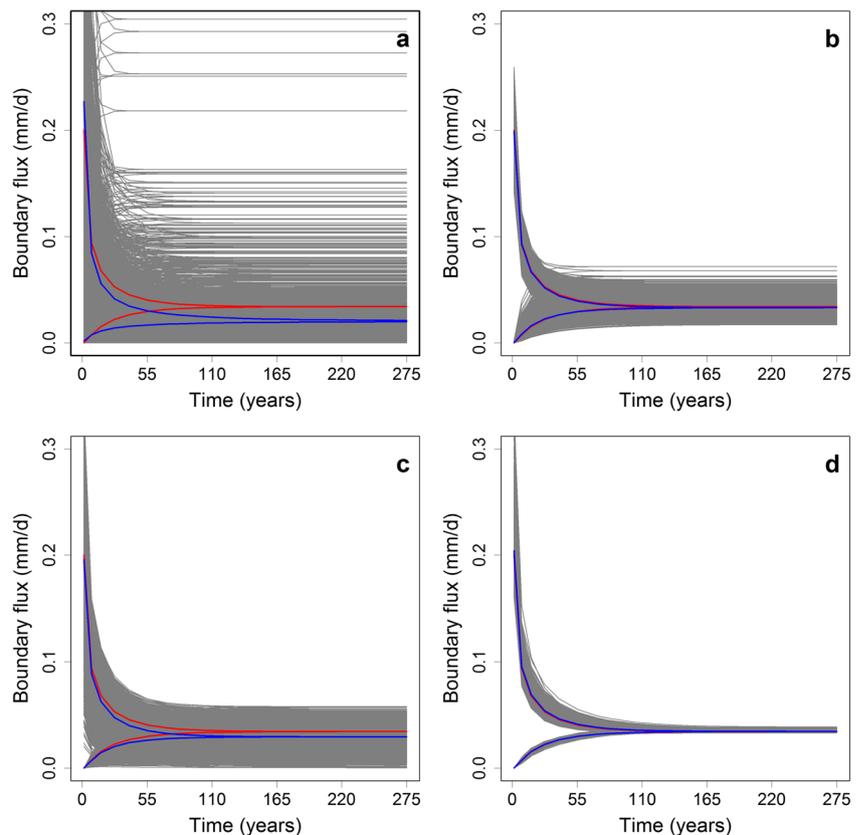
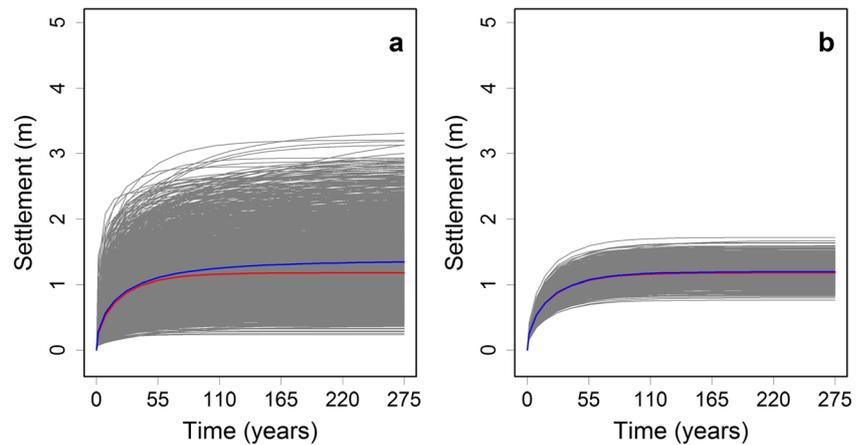


Fig. 12 Total settlement for **a** random K with logarithmic variance of $1.68 \text{ m}^2/\text{s}^2$ and **b** random K with logarithmic variance of $0.10 \text{ m}^2/\text{s}^2$. Red line is the deterministic reference case, gray lines correspond to 2,000 Monte Carlo realizations and blue line is the ensemble average of these realizations



total settlement predictions than the other three parameters considered. In this section the effect of two different values of variance of $\ln K$: $1.68 \text{ m}^2/\text{s}^2$ (equal to the variance of C_c in the previous numerical example), and $0.10 \text{ m}^2/\text{s}^2$, is explored. In each case, 2,000 Monte Carlo realizations of $\ln K$ were generated and the nonlinear subsidence algorithm was run to 275 years.

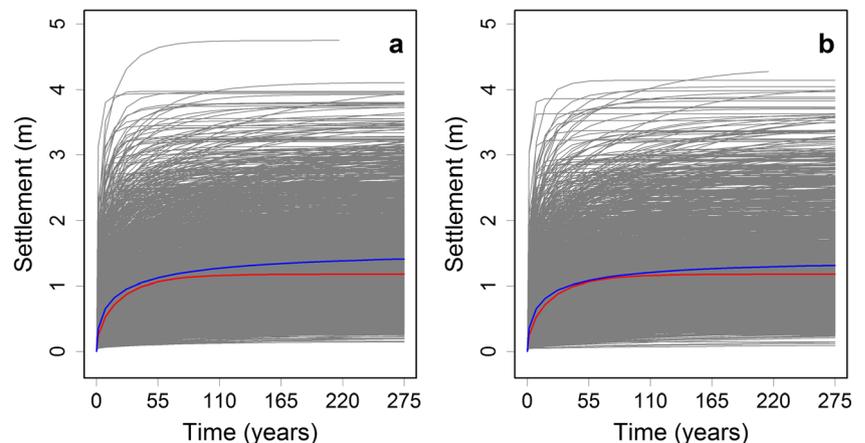
Figure 12 depicts the results of total settlement versus time for both cases. Figure 12a depicts the results for total settlement considering random $\ln K$ with variance of $1.68 \text{ m}^2/\text{s}^2$. The ensemble average (blue line) is again larger than the deterministic results (red line), and at the end of the simulation this difference depicts an increase of 14% with 1.34 m of total settlement and variance of 0.27 m^2 . Figure 12b depicts the results for $\ln K$ variance of $0.1 \text{ m}^2/\text{s}^2$. In this case the ensemble average (blue line) almost matches with the deterministic results (red line), with a low difference of 0.02 m that corresponds to a 1% increase with a settlement variance of 0.02 m^2 at the end of simulation. Comparing these results with those of the previous section (Table 2), if the variance of $\ln K$ is equal to the variance of C_c , the former case leads to larger ensemble total settlement (1.34 m) and larger variance (0.27 m^2) than the case with random C_c (ensemble total settlement of 1.15 m and variance of 0.02 m^2 , Table 2). The effect of C_c is

comparable to that of K when the variance of $\ln K$ is $0.1 \text{ m}^2/\text{s}^2$ (lower than the variance of C_c). These results support those in Table 2 and the observation that heterogeneity of K must be considered when modeling nonlinear consolidation in highly compressible aquitards.

Next the effect of varying the integral scale of $\ln K$ is explored; Fig. 13a depicts the results for an integral scale of 5 m, while Fig. 13b depicts the results for an integral scale of 10 m. In the first case, ensemble average total settlement is 1.41 m (20% larger than the deterministic case) with a variance of 0.60 m^2 at the end of the simulation. In the second case, integral scale of 10 m, the ensemble average total settlement is 1.31 m (12% larger than the deterministic case) with a variance of 0.52 m^2 at the end of the simulation. These results show that the ensemble average total settlement diminishes as the integral scale increases.

Finally, the impact of the correlation structure of $\ln K$ on total settlement is explored. Figure 14 depicts the total settlement versus time when $\ln K$ has a spherical correlation structure. In this case the magnitude of the ensemble average of total settlement (blue line) is smaller than the deterministic results (red line) at early times but larger at late times, contrasting with the results with an exponential covariance

Fig. 13 Total settlement for $\ln K$ with integral scale of **a** 5 m and **b** 10 m. Red line is the deterministic reference case, gray lines correspond to 2,000 Monte Carlo realizations and blue line is the ensemble average of these realizations



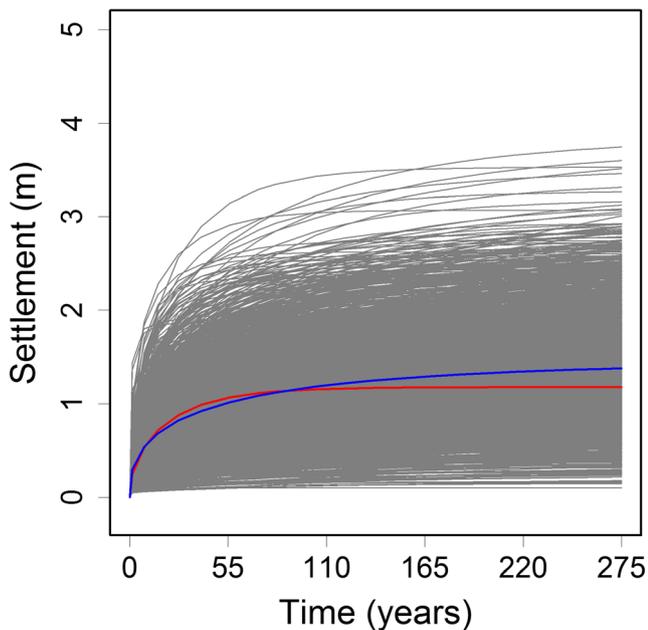


Fig. 14 Total settlement for random K with spherical correlation structure. Red line is the deterministic reference case, gray lines correspond to 2,000 Monte Carlo realizations and blue line is the ensemble average of these realizations

(Fig. 10a) where the ensemble average is always larger than the deterministic results. The ensemble average total settlement at the end of the simulation is 1.38 m (17% larger than total settlement for the deterministic case) with a variance of 0.35 m^2 (smaller than the case for exponential correlation structure, Table 2).

Conclusions

The effect of vertical heterogeneity in simulating nonlinear 1-D groundwater flow and consolidation in highly compressible aquitards was explored by means of Monte Carlo numerical simulation. Hydraulic conductivity K , compression index C_c , void ratio e and m (an empirical parameter relating K and e) were treated as independent, spatially correlated multi-Gaussian random variables. The results were expressed in terms of the ensemble average of the variables and compared to the results of a reference case with deterministic parameters.

The results of the numerical Monte Carlo simulations indicate that K has the largest impact on the nonlinear 1-D groundwater flow and consolidation. When compared to the reference case for a total simulation time of 275 years, the case with random K leads to 20% larger total settlement and about 40% less flux at the boundaries. While the deterministic case reaches steady state after 168 years, the ensemble averages of total settlement and boundary fluxes of the random case approximate steady state after 525 years. Parameter m is the second random variable in importance, probably due to its

relation to K , leading to 7% less total settlement and 15% less boundary flux than the deterministic reference case. Considering compression index and void ratio as random variables leads to ensemble averages of total settlement and flux at the boundaries similar to the results of the deterministic reference case.

The case with random K also leads to the largest variance in all variables, including hydraulic head, effective stress, total settlement and boundary fluxes. Random K leads to variance for total settlement 5–25 times larger than the corresponding results considering m , C_c or e as random. Although each realization has a spatial mean similar to the deterministic case, total settlement can be very variable, between a few centimeters up to 2.85 m at 275 years (two times the standard deviation). Random K also leads to the largest variance in boundary fluxes and time to reach steady state.

These results highlight the fact that heterogeneity in K leads to the largest uncertainty in the prediction of consolidation in highly compressible aquitards. Inaccurate characterization of the aquifer system at the level of identifying aquitards, their hydromechanical properties and their heterogeneity may lead to significant errors in site-specific, predictive modeling. These results are based on a 1-D model. Variance of hydraulic head in heterogeneous 1-D models is typically smaller than what is obtained from two-dimensional (2-D) simulations. Therefore, total settlement and its variance in 2-D heterogeneous aquitards might be smaller than our results. However, this may not be enough to invalidate the main result: that spatial variability of K needs to be accounted for (in addition to variability of the other parameters) in modeling consolidation in these highly compressible systems. Future work should consider the case with cross-correlation between the parameters, 2-D and 3-D simulations and fully coupled aquitard-aquifer simulation.

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